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# Sonde Experiments for Comparative Measurements of Optical Turbulence

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**AERONOMY DIVISION** 

PROJECT 6687

AIR FORCE GEOPHYSICS LABORATORY

HANSCOM AFB, MASSACHUSETTS 01731

AIR FORCE SYSTEMS COMMAND, USAF



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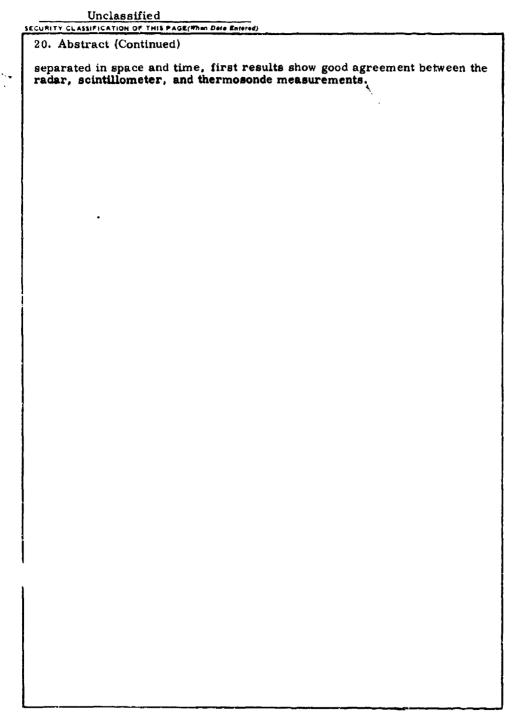
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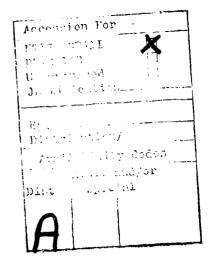
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## **Preface**

This program owes its success to the dedication of numerous individuals. These include:

Th	ermos	onde	constr	uction	and
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Radiosonde modification

Mr. Hans Laping, LCC Mrs. Evelyn Haynor, LCC MSGT N.K. Newman, LCC

Mr. G. Murphy, Tri-Con Assoc., Inc.

Radiosonde tuning and tracking

Mr. J. Griffin, LCR Mr. K. Walker, LCR

Radar observations

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Dr. Prabhat Rostogi, NEROC

Scintillometer observations

Dr. A. Quesada, LKD

Radioscnde balloon launch

Mr. G. McPhetres, LCC MSGT J. Gordon, LCC

Tracking data reduction

Mr. Brian Sullivan, Boston College

Theoretical discussions

Dr. Edmond Dewan, LKD

We sincerely thank the many named and unnamed individuals who in large or small part contributed of themselves so willingly.

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1. Optical  $\operatorname{C}^2_N$  (Turbulence) Measurement Program

# Sonde Experiments for Comparative Measurements of Optical Turbulance

#### 1. INTRODUCTION

Atmospheric properties of temperature, pressure, humidity, and wind speed, as measured by meteorological radiosondes, offer a means of estimating the fluctuations in the atmospheric optical index of refraction. Fluctuations of the index of refraction, characterized as  $C_N^2$ , are important to numerous DOD optical systems being both planned and developed. Direct measurements of  $C_N^2$  are possible with optical systems such as those used to evaluate sites for astronomical telescopes. These measurements have been limited to a few locations, and this technique is not suitable for assembling a world wide data base of  $C_N^2$ . Given that  $C_N^2$  determined from meteorological data can be an accurate measure of optical turbulence, the best promise for economically assembling a large data base is through the use of the archived meteorological sounding data obtained from sondes.

The present rawinsonde measurements are usually achieved with altitude resolution of 300 m or larger. This scale is generally accepted as being larger than the vertical scales of turbulence that produce the  $C_N^2$ . Thus, in order to develop an analytical model predicting  $C_N^2$  from the standard rawinsonde, it is necessary to have a statistical base relating the actual turbulence scales to the rawinsonde observed scales. New sondes (artsondes) have been developed by VIZ Corporation for the National Weather Service to measure the meteorological

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variables at smaller altitude resolution. These sondes were modified at AFGL to provide data for a  $C_N^2$  intercomparison test. The program objective is to compare  $C_N^2$  as determined from standard rawinsondes, the AFGL modified artsondes, AFGL built thermosondes, stellar scintillometers, aircraft-mounted commercial thermosondes, and UHF radar.

The detailed description of the AFGL artsonde and thermosonde is presented in this report. Also presented is the calibration procedure and the computer analysis used to derive the meteorological values from the recorded telemetry signal. The sonde tracking and ranging system is described along with the data processing procedures used to smooth the data and determine the winds as a function of altitude. A brief description of experimental results is shown as comparisons of  ${\rm C}_{\rm N}^2$  measurements obtained with radar, optical scintillometer, and thermosonde.

#### 2. RAWINSONDE

The rawinsonde used in these experiments consists of meteorological measuring elements coupled to a radio transmitter and assembled into a small lightweight plastic case. The device is carried aloft by a 1200-gm balloon filled with helium gas. Included in the train is a small parachute to slow the descent of the device after the balloon bursts. An automatic launching reel is attached to the train, which lowers the radiosonde until the train is fully extended to about 20 m. As the balloon ascends at about 5 m/sec, measurements of pressure, temperature, and relative humidity are transmitted to a ground station where the data are recorded. As the balloon rises, it is followed electronically by radio direction-finding equipment that tracks the transmitted signal. Measurements of the balloon position relative to the ground station are recorded in terms of azimuth, elevation, and slant range. These measurements are converted to X, Y, and Z distances. The data are filtered as described in Section 4.4 to remove extraneous signals and then time differenced to obtain wind velocity profiles.

Fifty (50) state-of-the-art radiosondes were purchased from VIZ Corporation, Philadelphia, Pa. These are called by them the "Artsonde-Phase II," and they carry VIZ part number, 1499-311. This is a 1680-MHz amplitude modulated sonde with a 403-MHz receiver used for transponder ranging. The transmission of meteorological (MET) data serially switches by solid-state circuitry from pressure to temperature, to relative humidity, to reference, and back to pressure with a segment dwell time of 250 msec. Premium sensor elements are used for the aneroid baroswitch, thermistor, and hygristor. Depending upon the sensor input resistance, a frequency of 30 to 1000 Hz is produced that modulates the 1680 MHz transmitter. The reference frequency is set close to 1000 Hz. It provides the

identification of segment position, and it allows for data correction of temperature induced frequency drifts.

#### 2.1 Rawinsonde Modifications

After delivery of the radiosondes, seve... in-house modifications were required. Because greater temporal and spatial data resolution were desired than were available from a standard radiosonde and its associated GMD tracker, special payload and ground equipment changes were implemented. Additionally, a separate instrument to measure small temperature fluctuations (thermosonde) was attached physically and electrically to the radiosonde. The modification included changes in the radiosonde transmitter, receiver, solid-state switching, and MET oscillator circuit boards.

#### 2.1.1 MET CIRCUIT CARD

In order to transmit the additional thermosonde data, the number of commutation data segments was increased from the standard four to eight. To accomplish this, a second quad-bilateral switch (p/n 4066) was added to the MET circuit board. This was facilitated by the existing 4017 IC clock, which allows serial switching of up to ten segments. Two of the additional segments were used for thermosonde information and two were used as auxilliary segments. The auxillary segments allowed super-commutation of the MET data or the reporting of electronics temperature.

To accomplish calibration and ground-base checks the eight lock-up and one common test points were brought to an eight-position rotary switch. During calibration the normally free-running segment switch was stopped on a segment corresponding to the position of the switch. The frequency of each segment was examined, in turn, by rotating the switch from one position to the next. The measured frequency was then recorded along with the measured temperature, humidity, pressure commutator position, and thermosonde test value. The baroswitch that forms one part of the MET board transmits one of four unique frequencies depending upon the position of the baroswitch armature. The original separation of frequencies was only 10 or 20 Hz. In order to provide a separation of 100 Hz between each frequency, three new resistors replaced existing ones with appropriate values. This reduced confusion over contact identification.

#### 2.1.2 TRANSPONDER RECEIVER

The balloon borne 403-MHz transponder receiver is used to derive the slant range in the following manner: Ground-base equipment generates a PCM code that is synchronized with the start pulse of a time interval counter. This code modulates the 403-MHz uplink transmitter. The receiver transponder uses this code to

modulate a 70-kHz subcarrier oscillator. This subcarrier is mixed with the MET data and used to modulate the balloon-borne transmitter. Ground-base equipment retrieves and decodes the PCM code, which then sends a stop pulse to the interval counter. Since slant range is calibrated vs interval, a direct digital coded range output is produced.

#### 2.1.3 TRANSMITTER

Normally the transmitter is 100 percent amplitude modulated by ne MET data pulses. When the MET data pulse is high, the transmitter is that down. This results in an AM pulse repetition frequency that is measured by ground receiving equipment to determine the sensor input resistance.

The on-board 403-MHz receiver frequency modulates the transmitter. Since this information is lost when the MET signal is high (because the transmitter is shut down), difficulty in holding synchronization to the ranging signal develops. Consequently the evaluation of slant range data contains associated errors. To eliminate this problem, the ac-coupling AM input to the transmitter was removed. Instead, the MET data was ac-coupled to the transmitter in the same manner and to the same junction point as the ranging signal. This results in MET data frequency modulation of 30 to 1000 Hz and ranging modulation of 70 kHz.

#### 2.2 Resistance Calculation

This section presents the MET data transfer equations as given by VIZ Corporation (document nos. VIZ 800721 and 761101B). The form of these expressions as well as the constants depend on the sensor type and manufacturing lot number. The input resistance to the radiosonde corresponding to the measured MET frequency is:

$$R_{input} = R_{int} (f_{ref}/f_{meas} - 1)$$
.

where  $f_{ref}$  is the average measured reference frequency and  $f_{meas}$  is the average measured segment frequency when the baroswitch in on a space (that is, between two discrete contact points).

The thermistor or pressure resistance is the input resistance when on a temperature or pressure segment.

The input resistance when on a humidity segment is the equivalent parallel resistance of a 1-M resistor and the hygristor resistance; thus,

$$R_{RH} = \frac{R_{input} \times 10^6}{1 \times 10^6 - R_{input}}.$$

#### 2.2.1 TEMPERATURE CALIBRATION

Temperature is calculated from  $\upsilon \omega$  thermistor resistance  $R_{\mathbf{T}}$  as follows:

$$t_{G_c} = \frac{1}{\sum_{k=0}^{3} A_k \{ t_{ii} (R_T/R_{30}) \}^k} - 273.15$$
,

where  $R_{30}$  is the acculok lock-in resistance at  $30^{\rm OC}$ . The coefficients for premium temperature element lot P6970 as provided by VIZ are:

$$A_0 = 3.2987 E-03$$

$$A_1 = 4.7610 E-04$$

$$A_2 = 2.8417 E-06$$

$$A_3 = 1.5691 E-06$$
.

#### 2.2.2 HUMIDITY CALIBRATION

Relative humidity is calculated from the hygristor resistance  $\boldsymbol{R}_{\mbox{\scriptsize RH}}$  as follows:

$$RH = A - \frac{69.}{\sum_{k=0}^{4} D_{k} [r(R_{RH})]^{k}},$$

where

$$f(R_{RH}) = f(t) \ln (R_{RH}/R_{33})$$
,

 $R_{33}$  is the acculok lock-in resistance at 33 percent RH and  $25^{\circ}\mathrm{C}$ ,

and

$$f(t) = \sum_{k=0}^{3} C_{k}(t)^{k} \qquad (t = {}^{\circ}Celsius).$$

The coefficients for premium humidity element lot 2265 as provided by VIZ are:

for  $f(R_{RH}) \ge -0.2$ : for  $f(R_{RH}) < -0.2$ :  $D_0 = 1$ .  $D_0 = -2.0909 E00$   $D_1 = 7.1454 E-01$   $D_1 = 9.2406 E00$   $D_2 = -7.9163 E-02$   $D_2 = 2.1693 E01$   $D_3 = 3.2555 E-02$   $D_3 = 2.2214 E01$   $D_4 = 3.9255 E-03$   $D_4 = -6.1926 E00$  A = 102. A = 0.

#### 2.2.3 PRESSURE CALIBRATION

Each radiosonde is provided with pressure calibration values for the leading edge of 160 contact positions of the baroswitch by VIZ Corporation. Four discrete frequencies can be transmitted by the baroswitch, depending upon at which of the four classifications of contacts the baroswitch is located. The four frequencies were adjusted to provide approximately 500-, 600-, 700-, and 800-Hz signals. Approximately 500 Hz is transmitted when the baroswitch is located between any two discrete contact points. Approximately 600 Hz is transmitted for the following contact numbers: 30, 45, 60, 75, 90, 105, 120, 135, 140, 145, 150, 155, and 160. These start at contact number 30 and increase by 15 for contact numbers less than 135 and increase by five for contact numbers greater than 135. Approximately 700 Hz is transmitted for the following contact numbers: 5, 10, 15, 20, 25, 35, 40, 50, 55, 65, 70, 80, 85, 95, 100, 110, 115, 125, 130, 136, 137, 138, 139, 141, 142, 143, 144, 146, 147, 148, 149, 151, 152, 153, 154, 156, 157, 158, and 159. These start at contact number 5 and increase by five for contact numbers less than 135 and increase by one for contact numbers greater than 135. Approximately 800 Hz is transmitted for all other contacts. Before each launch the baroswitch is manually set to the contact position corresponding to the ambient station pressure. During analysis the computer identifies groups and subgroups of contacts and defines a particular contact within a larger group. Thus, if transmission is lost for a short time, the computer redefines the location of the baroswitch and estimates the present contact number. Pressure is defined at the leading edge of each contact and is logarithmically interpolated between contacts based on altitude.

Sample results of the pressure, temperature, humidity, and  $C_N^2$  calculations are presented in Figure 1. The first column is the record number. "Time" is defined as seconds after launch. "CTEMP" is the corrected temperature based on inferred time lags. No correction is made to humidity below -40°C. Pressure contacts are split into classes 0 to 3. Column 11 shows that a contact number is defined at the first encounter of a new contact. Columns 14 and 16 show that

results Processed Data. Radiosonde/Thermusonde Sample Output of Reduced \_; igure

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1

 $(\Delta T)_{rms}$  is undefined for values less than  $0.002^{\circ}$ . The  $^{0******}$  in the last column flag values of  $(\Delta T)_{rms}$  low gain that are greater than  $0.035^{\circ}$ . The corresponding high gain value is not valid for this condition.

#### 3. THERMOSONDE

The thermosonde is a small, lightweight, temperature-sensing electronic unit that attaches to the radiosonde. It measures the difference in temperature of the ambient atmosphere between two probes mounted horizontally 1 m apart. As the balloon ascends or descends, the temperature differences are processed and routed to the radiosonde MET segments. The received data is used to calculate the atmospheric temperature structure parameter  $C_{\mathbf{T}}^2$ . These data, together with pressure and temperature, are used to calculate the refractive index structure parameter  $C_{\mathbf{N}}^2$ . Fundamentally,  $C_{\mathbf{N}}^2$  is defined as:

$$C_N^2 = \overline{[n(\vec{r}_1) - n(\vec{r}_2)]^2}/r^{2/3}$$

for  $n(r_i)$  the index of refraction at point  $r_i$  and  $r = |\vec{r}_1 - \vec{r}_2|$ . This parameter is the key unknown in estimating the performance of laser systems through the clear atmosphere. Among those explicit or indirect dependencies on the  $C_N^2$  profile are: log-amplitude of light fluctuations, wave structure function, receiver diameter for heterodyne detection, and modulation transfer function.

In flight, the thermosonde passes its temperature difference measurement of  $T_2$  -  $T_1$  through a root mean square (rms) module. Ground-based processing converts this to the mean square temperature fluctuation  $(T_2 - T_1)^2$ , which over one meter separation equals  $C_T^2$ . This is converted to  $C_N^2$  through the equation:

$$C_N^2(h) = \left[\frac{79.9 \text{ P(h)} \times 10^{-6}}{T^2(h)}\right]^2 \times C_T^2$$
 (1)

where P(h) is pressures in mbar and h is altitude. 1

The original lightweight thermosonde system was developed by GTE Sylvania lne., Electro-optics Organization for the Goddard Space Flight Center in 1971.  $^2$ ,  $^3$ 

Tatarski, V.I. (1961) Wave Propagation in a Turbulent Medium, McGrew-Hill Co., New York.

Titterton, P. J., Mallery, L.E., and Arken, T.A. (1971) Lightweight Thermosonde System, GTE Sylvania, Inc., Final Report, NAS5-11493.

<sup>3.</sup> GTE Sylvania, Inc. (1972) Lightweight Thermosonde System Model 140 (Instruction Manual), Mountain View, California, B440.

This prototype system was flown by the balloon branch of the AFCRI, on 18 November 1971 at Chico, Calif. and the results were analyzed by Jack I., Button of the Goddard Space Flight Center, NASA. 4,5

Modifications to improve the operation of this system were made in 1975 by the Air Force Weapons Laboratory, Kirtiand AFR, E. Mex. with assistance of personnel from Dynalection Corporation. A new electronics board layout and component replacements were performed at AFGL in 1-77. For the current 1981 program in which be the remonorde units were required, it was necessary to construct a completely new circuit board layout (Figure 2) with some design modifiestions. Tel Con Associates, Inc. provided the design and acyout schematics, and the fifty units were assembled and tested by the engineering services section of the AFGL balloon branch.

#### 3.1 Thermoronde Description

The thermosonde consists of two fine-wire tangeten probes exposed to the ambient atmosphere and separated by 1 m. Each probe has a resistance defined as  $\Omega_p * B_0 * o \Omega_0(T^*T_0)$ . The temperature difference between the two probes,  $\Delta T$ , to determined from an observed difference in restatance.

$$\Delta R_{Q} = R_{Q} + R_{T} = \sigma R_{Q} \Delta T \quad , \tag{C}$$

where E<sub>O</sub> is the resistance of the second at the point I<sub>O</sub>. The two probes form elements of an an Wheatstone bridge which is driven by a 30-kHz simunoidal constant current source. As an resistance fluctuation in the bridge modulates the driving source, which is transformer coupled to a presmptifier. The algorid is then passed through a demodulator, additional supplifiers, low and high pass filters, a time module, and a current converter module. This current signal is used to drive the Mh I data oscillator of the radiosonde package. After demodulation, a feedback foop supplies a sense voltage to a bridge balance-restoring circuit. The bridge to electronically rebalanced with a time constant of 20 sec. Thus, do resistance whifts due to temperature drifts are conscilled. The system bandwidth is set by a 4-pole lighterworth and low-pass filter network whose -3 dB cutoff frequencies are

- Bufton, J. L. (1973) Correlation of interothermal turbulence data with ineteorological moundings in the troposphere, J. Aimon. Sci. 30:83-87.
- Button, J. L. (1975) A Reddenonde Thermal Sensor Technique for Meanures ment of Atmosphery, Turkyleney, NASA TN D 7067.
- 6. Curatola, C. (1975) Mydiffections to GTI Sylvama Thermonousle For Improved Operation, Plant Report, At WL-TR-75-180, ADA 018227.
- Murphy, G.P. (1981) New Techniques and Devices For Measuring Stratogaheric Tarbulence, AFGL-TR 81-0128, ADA 102680.

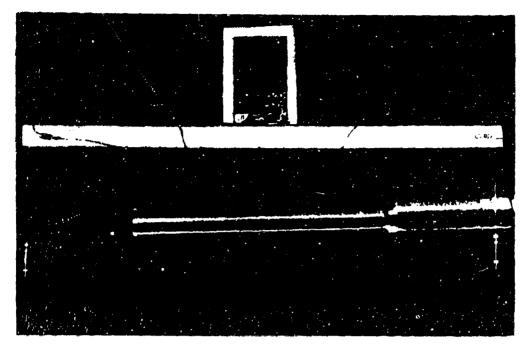


Figure 2. Photograph of Thermosonde and Micro Thermal Probe. Tungsten wire diameter 3.45 µm. Effective length is 0.45 cm. Nominal ice point resistance is 27 ohtus and its temperature coefficient of resistance is 0.00375°C<sup>-1</sup>. Sensor wire retouched for better photographing

1000 Hz and 0.2 Hz, respectively. A 1-sec rms average is performed on the filtered signal.

In the case of a square wave signal, the rms resistance is one-half the peakto-peak resistance and Eq. (2) becomes

$$\Delta T_{rms} = \Delta R_{p}/(2 \alpha R_{o}) , \qquad (3)$$

The fine 99. 98 percent pure tungsten wire is manufactured by the Sigmond Cohen Corp., Mt. Vernon, N.Y., and the wire is attached to a probe assembly by Datametrics, Inc. The nominal wire diameter is 3.45  $\mu m$ . A 0.45-cm length of the wire is mounted between two 0.5-cm long wire supports extending out from the probe holder (Figure 2). Its nominal ice point resistance,  $R_o$ , is 27 ohms at  $\theta^0 C$ . This sets the electrical resistivity at 5.9  $\mu\Omega$  - cm. The temperature coefficient of resistance was measured at 0.00375°C<sup>-1</sup>. Note that the electrical

resistivity and temperature coefficient differ from tabulated values. This is probably due to a low annealing temperature of the drawn wire.

#### 3.2 Sensor Heating Effects

Optimum performance of the thermosonde can be achieved by passing a current through the wire that is large enough to enhance the temperature response, but small enough to avoid significant velocity response. Since a cool ambient fluid flowing over a warmer body will lower the temperature of the body toward the fluid temperature, it is desirable to keep the current-induced temperature difference below the minimum detectable value of 0.002°C rms. The maximum current allowed for not exceeding this temperature difference can be estimated from a heat transfer analysis. The current generated temperature difference,  $\Delta T_{W^0}$  can be determined as

$$\Delta T_{W} = \frac{\Delta P}{JA_{gh}} , \qquad (4)$$

where

ΔP is the electrical power input between two conditions

J is the mechanical equivalent of heat 4.18 (Joule/Cal)

 $A_{\rm S}$  is the surface area of the wire = 5  $\times$  10<sup>-4</sup> (cm<sup>2</sup>)

 $h^{-}$  is the heat transfer coefficient (Cal  $\cdot$  s<sup>-1</sup>  $\cdot$  cm  $^{-2}$   $\cdot$   $^{o}\mathrm{K}^{-1}$  ).

The power input is  $P = I^2(R_A + \Delta R)$  where  $R_A$  is the sensor resistance in the absence of an applied current and  $\Delta R$  is the change in resistance due to applied current.

The heat transfer coefficient of the actual thermosonde probe was determined in the laboratory by the temperature difference between two power levels. A special bridge test circuit (Figure 3) was built to provide a constant current across the bridge. This current alternatively can be stepped high and low, depending upon the input voltage  $\Sigma$ . The bridge output,  $E_0$ , was amplified by a factor of 83.33. The additional wire resistance, R, caused by the current heating was determined from the observed voltages and current as

$$R = E_o/83.33I_i . ag{5}$$

The current converter input voltages were stepped from 0.5 V to 5 V, which produced probe currents,  $I_i$ , of 0.5 mA and 5 mA, respectively. The observed

<sup>8.</sup> Smithells, C.J. (1952) Tungsten, A Treatise on Its Metallurgy, Properties And Applications, Chapman & Hall, London, 3rd ed.

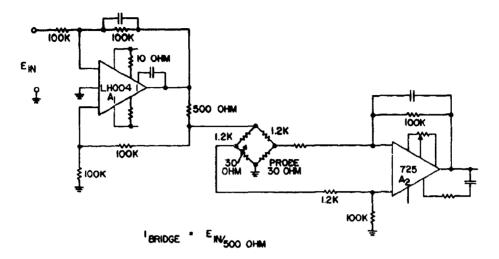


Figure 3. Schematic of Thermosonde Sensor Convective Heat Transfer Test Circuit. For a given input voltage,  $E_{\rm in}$ , the LH0041 circuit produces a constant probe current of  $(E_{\rm in}/(2\times500))$  amps. The 725 amplifier provides an output,  $E_{\rm o}$  = 83.33 × Bridge potential difference. Thus the differential resistance of the bridge due to probe I<sup>2</sup>R heating is: R =  $E_{\rm o}/83.33$  I<sub>i</sub>

outputs were 0.01 V and 0.32 V. The temperature difference produced in the wire,  $\Delta T_{W}$  , is

$$\Delta T_W = (R_{5.0} - R_{0.5})/\alpha R_o$$
, (6)

where in this case  $R_o$  = 26.28  $\Omega$ ,  $\Delta R$  =  $R_{5.0}$  -  $R_{0.5}$  = 0.528  $\Omega$ , and  $\Delta T_W$  = 5.36  $^{\rm o}$ C.

The difference in power between the two test conditions was determined as  $\Delta P = P_{5.0} - P_{0.5} = (24.75 \, R_A + 60 \, E_{5.0} - 6E_{0.5}) \, \mu \text{W}$  with a measured  $R_A = 28.25 \, \Omega$ ,  $\Delta P = 718 \, \mu \text{W}$ . From Eq. (4), the experimentally determined heat transfer coefficient is found,  $h = 0.064 \, \text{cal} \cdot \text{s}^{-1} \cdot \text{cm}^{-2} \cdot ^{\circ} \text{K}^{-1}$ .

In flight, using a probe power of  $1/3~\mu W$  rms produces a self-heating temperature rise [using Eq. (4)] of

 $\Delta T = 0.0025^{\circ} C \text{ (rms)}.$ 

Consequently, self-heating effects set the thermosonde noise level at 0.002°C. The actual flight condition heat transfer coefficient depends upon air velocity and density. A study was performed to determine the convective heat transfer coefficient

as a function Reynolds number. The heat transfer coefficient h is described in terms of the Nusselt number  $Nu_d$  as  $h = Nu_d k/d$ , where k is the thermal conductivity of the air and d is the characteristic length. The Nusselt number can be calculated from the Reynolds number Red over limited regions. 9 Calibrations of h vs pressure and wind velocity were performed in a bell jar/blower vacuum system at conditions corresponding to the surface level, that is, p = 760 mmHg, T = 24°C, velocity =  $5m \cdot s^{-1}$  (corresponding to the vertical balloon ascent rate) Re = 1.2; h is evaluated to be 0.12 cal · s<sup>-1</sup> · cm<sup>-2</sup> · <sup>0</sup>K<sup>-1</sup> or double the "no-wind" condition. At lower pressures, the bell jar density is correlated with the standard atmosphere to obtain altitude. An altitude profile of h is constructed from these calibrations (Figure 4). Above 29-km altitude molecular flow occurs. Here, the free molecular heat conductivity given by Dushman is used. 10 It is clear that an increase in velocity (Reynolds number) at standard conditions enhances the value of h and lowers self-heating even below the specified 0.002°C. At the maximum expected altitude of about 30 km, h = 0.031 cal  $\cdot$  s<sup>-1</sup> · cm<sup>-2</sup> ·  $^{0}$ K<sup>-1</sup>, and self-heating can be expected to approach a noise value of 0.005°C.

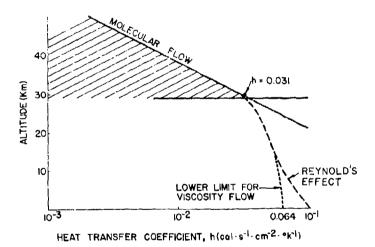


Figure 4. Heat Transfer Coefficient Curve of Thermosonde Sensor as a Function of Altitude. Bell jar calibration. At STP, h is measured at 0.064, cal·s<sup>-1</sup>·cm<sup>-2</sup>· $^{\circ}$ K<sup>-1</sup>. With air speed = 5 m·s<sup>-1</sup>, h = 0.12 cal·s<sup>-1</sup>·cm<sup>-2</sup>· $^{\circ}$ CK<sup>-1</sup> at 30 km, h = 0.031 cal·s<sup>-1</sup>·cm<sup>-2</sup>· $^{\circ}$ CK<sup>-1</sup>. Above 30 km, free molecular conductivity applies

<sup>9.</sup> Marton, L. (1981) Fluid Dynamics, Academic Press, New York, Vol. 18, Part A, p. 271.

Dushman, S. (1962) <u>Scientific Foundations of Vacuum Techniques</u>, John Wiley, New York, p. 47, 2nd ed.

#### 3.3 Sensor Frequency Response

If the temperature of the environment  $T_e$  suddenly changes, one wishes to know how fast the sensor will follow the environmental changes. Assume that the wire initially has a temperature  $T_i$  and is to be brought to an environment temperature  $T_e$ . The time for the wire temperature to recover a given fraction of the environmental temperature is given as: 11

1 12.00

$$\frac{\theta_0}{\theta_i} = \frac{1 - 2\alpha bt}{r} \tag{7}$$

where,

$$\theta_0 = T_{\text{max}} - T_{\text{e}}$$

$$\theta_i = T_i - T_e$$

r = wire radius (cm)

 $\alpha$  = thermal diffusivity of the wire (cm<sup>2</sup>/sec)

b = h/k

h = convective heat transfer coefficient (cal · s<sup>-1</sup> · cm<sup>-2</sup> · <sup>o</sup>K<sup>-1</sup>)

Trest = the maximum temperature in the wire after time, t

k = thermal conductivity of tungsten (cal  $\cdot$  s<sup>-1</sup>  $\cdot$  cm<sup>-1</sup>  $\cdot$  °K<sup>-1</sup>)

$$= 0.426 \text{ cal} \cdot \text{s}^{-1} \cdot \text{cm}^{-1} \cdot \text{o}^{-1}$$

$$\alpha = k/(\rho_w C_{nw})$$

 $\rho_{\rm w}$  = tungsten density = 19.3 g · cm<sup>-3</sup>

 $C_{pw}$  = heat capacity of tungsten = 0.032 cal ·  $g^{-1}$  ·  $o_{K}^{-1}$ 

 $\alpha = 0.69 \text{ cm}^2 \cdot \text{s}^{-1}$ 

 $b = 0.16 \text{ cm}^{-1}$ 

t = time (sec)

Thus, the response time required to recover  $\theta_0/\theta_i = 50$  percent and  $\theta_0/\theta_i = 90$  percent is 0.4 msec and 0.72 msec, respectively.

This was verified experimentally. The sensor was placed in a bell jar vacuum chamber. A current pulse train of 0.5- to 5- mA amplitudes was applied to the sensor and the ac bridge signal response was displayed on an oscilloscope. It was observed that the bridge output approached 1/2 of its full-scale change in 0.3 msec. This gives a frequency response  $f_{1/2} = 3570$  Hz. It is clear that the sensor has an adequate temperature frequency response for the purpose of turbulence measurements.

<sup>11.</sup> Jakob, M. (1949) Heat Transfer, John Wiley, New York, Vol. 1, p. 291.

#### 3.4 Thermosonde Calibration

The thermosonde measurement is transmitted as a frequency value, nominally ranging between 30 and 700 Hz. Each frequency is related to a resistance which is defined by the observed temperature difference using Eq. (3). The relationship between frequency and resistance is determined by actual observations. A thermosonde test box was fabricated that alternately switches a test resistor in and out across one of the pair of matched 27  $\Omega$  resistors to simulate the probes. Any one of 12 precision resistors ranging from 1.4 M  $\Omega$  to 20 k  $\Omega$  can be inserted for the test resistor. These parallel resistors establish a known equivalent resistance. The differential resistance ( $\Delta R$ ) across the bridge is then,

$$\Delta R = R_{ps} - R_{eq}$$

where  $R_{_{\mbox{\footnotesize DS}}}$  is the simulated probe resistor  $\approx 27~\Omega,$  and

$$R_{eq} = \frac{R_{ps} \times R_{s}}{R_{ps} + R_{s}}$$

where  $R_{\alpha}$  is the inserted test resistor. Thus,

$$\Delta R = \frac{R^2}{R_{ps} + R_s}$$

For each thermosonde a table is constructed for  $\Delta R$  vs radiosonde frequency.  $\Delta T_{rms}$  is calculated from Eq. (3) and a polynomial fit is performed on this data in order to provide the transfer function. Typical calibrations are shown in Figures 5 and 6.

#### 3.5 Thermosonde Environment

The thermosonde was suspended 18 m below the sonde balloon. The balloon diameter expands from approximately 2 m at launch to about 10 m at 30 km.

A working rule is to locate experiments at least five diameters below the balloon to avoid wake effects. The 18-m suspension length is a compromise. A longer length can enhance a pendulum motion that would interfere with measurements. Thus, it is expected that the thermosonde will be located inside the balloon wake except during instances of large shears. However, even with the thermosonde inside the balloon wake, it is not clear what type of thermosonde error, if any, the wake would produce.

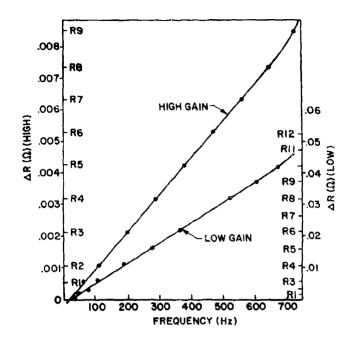


Figure 5. Calibration Curve of Thermosonde Sensor  $\Delta R$  as a Function of Radiosonde Frequency. Test resistors are switched quickly across simulated probes. This provides a calibration frequency for each known differential resistance

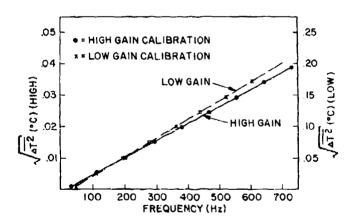


Figure 6. Calibration Curve of Thermosonde  $(\Delta T)_{\rm rm8}$  as a Function of Radiosonde Frequency. For a probe of given resistance and temperature coefficient, the resistance vs frequency calibration curve is converted to  $(\Delta T)_{\rm rm8}$  vs frequency

The existence of a wake behind a slow moving balloon (Re  $\sim 10^5$ ) could generate a temperature fluctuation due to two mechanisms. The first is due to turbulent mixing of the atmospheric temperature structure over some vertical scale length. The second could arise as a companion to compressible flow fluctuations of the velocity in the wake.

In the troposphere, the sonde is usually in supercritical flow, and the separated flow produces organized vortices. At about 11-kms, the flow becomes subcritical and the flow around the balloon turns into a randomized separation and a uniform turbulent wake. Analysis of the thermosonde data reveals no significant differences between tropospheric and stratospheric data. The thermosonde data indicates the probability of  $C_T^2$  is log normally distributed. Power spectral analysis of  $C_T^2$  shows that no frequency spikes or features exist over the measurement range of 2- to 200-sec periods. This implies that any wake effects arising from atmospheric structure would have to arise from scales smaller than 10 m. The thermosonde observes layers of high  $C_T^2$  over scales larger than 20 m as well as undetectable  $C_T^2$  (S/N < 1) for scales larger than 10 m. This strongly suggests that the existence of a wake does not cause false signals.

The explanation of why there is no wake effect could be due to the rapid dissipation of wake gradients. The small scale of the wake (length less than 10 m) allows rapid mechanical mixing to a still smaller scale followed by rapid thermal dissipation. We have made measurements of the rate of energy dissipation,  $\varepsilon$ , in the wake of high altitude aircraft. Film density analysis of aircraft wakes marked by creating a smoke trail of titanium oxide hydrates shows the energy decay rate to follow a t<sup>-4</sup> dependence. Thus, for a vertical rise rate of 5 m/sec, the balloon wake energy should be expected to dissipate to 1/256 of its original value by the time it reaches the thermosonde.

Confidence in the absence of wake effect will be developed as more of the data is analyzed and  $\operatorname{C}^2_N$  comparisons are made with the scintillometer and radar.

#### 4. DATA REDUCTION

The "raw" transmitted MET signal is bandpass filtered at 400 Hz and 5000 Hz, after which it triggers a "one shot" comparator. This results in a "clean" train of constant-amplitude/constant-width pulses equivalent to the MET frequencies. A Hewlett-Packard model 5326b timer/counter measures the time period of every other frequency period and transfers these times in a binary coded decimal format to a Honeywell computer, model 316. The computer packs a magnetic tape eight bits per word in a pre-determined record size and format. These tapes are then unpacked and converted to CDC 6600 computer compatible 9 track tapes.

#### 4.1 Time Period Records

Running time is determined by setting the algorithm time = Header time + 2 ET true, where header time is the actual Zulu time at the start of each computer record. The factor 2 appears because the counter measures every other period. The true time period is:

T true = tape speed input to counter time tape speed of original recording × measured counter time.

For this series, the tape speed counter input was 1/2 the original tape speed. If any  $^{\rm T}$  true is less than 0.91 msec, it is considered a data glitch and dropped from the summation and analysis.

#### 4.2 Reference Frequency ID

The unpack routine is initialized to the measured reference frequency at launch. A forward test searches for three successive data periods with a frequency of the initialized value  $\pm 5$  percent. When this criterion is achieved, a backwards test searches in reverse from the first of the three found frequencies to the first encounter of the initialized reference frequency  $\pm 50$  Hz. Once aloft, the reference frequency is allowed to drift slow! From its initialized value.

#### 4.3 Segment Window ID

After locating the last reference period of the previous reference segment, the time interval of the entire eight segment commutation frame is measured by summing each period and multiplying the result by two as described before. This defines the frame time. Since there are eight segments, the frame time is divided by eight to identify each segment interval. Since the frame rate is set at approximately 2.0 sec, the segment dwell time is approximately 250 msec per segment. Only the center 60 percent of each time segment is used in the frequency determination for that segment. The first and last 20 percent of the segment time is dropped and the remaining periods are averaged. Inverting the average period provides the average frequency for the segment. The standard deviation of each segment interval is calculated, and if  $\sigma_{ref}$  exceeds ± 10 Hz, or if  $\sigma_{temp}$ ,  $\sigma_{RH}$ , or  $\sigma_{press}$  exceeds ± 5 Hz, the two smallest time periods are dropped. In most cases this removes spurious pulses. A new average and  $\sigma$  are redetermined, and if  $\sigma_{\text{ref}}^{}$  exceeds  $\pm$  10 Hz, the entire commutation frame is dropped from analysis. If  $\sigma_{\rm temp},~\sigma_{\rm RH},$ or o press exceeds ± 5 Hz, the calculated segment frequency is considered erroneous, and individual bad segments are dropped from analysis. In addition, if at least two time periods are not found in a particular segment, that segment is dropped from analysis. The segment sequence per frame is, in most cases:

reference, thermosonde high gain, temperature, relative humidity, thermosonde low gain, pressure, temperature, and relative humidity. When the thermosonde is not flown, those segments usually contain second samples of pressure and relative humidity.

#### 4.4 Tracker Data

Due to the intrinsically low signal sensitivity of the on-board receiver, and to tracker hunting errors, large fluctuations occurred in the instantaneous position measurements of azimuth, elevation, and slant range. These data were refined after each flight on a CDC 6600 computer. The data, which were recorded every 0.1 sec, was edited by passing through a first difference software routine. Differences between adjacent points greater than two standard deviations from the average deviation were flagged. The average first difference is defined by:

$$\bar{e} = \sum_{i=2}^{n} \frac{(X_i - X_{i-1})}{n-1}$$

Where n is the number of points and  $X_i$  is the value of the ith point. The standard deviation is:

$$\sigma = \sqrt{\sum_{i=2}^{n} \frac{(X_{i} - X_{i-1})^{2}}{n-1} - \left[\frac{\sum_{i=2}^{n} (X_{i} - X_{i-1})}{n-1}\right]^{2}}$$

To smooth through the flagged data, a search was made to find four statistically acceptable points on either side of the flagged values. Once found, least squares polynomials were generated through this eight point array. Root-mean-square and Durbin-Watson criteria were used to automatically select the optimal fit, up to fifth degree. Polynomial interpolation then replaced the flagged data.

Smoothing of data within  $\pm\,2\,\sigma$  was performed by replacing centered data with a  $3\times3$  moving average of neighboring points. The average is defined by:

$$X = 1/9X_{i-2} + 2/9X_{i-1} + 1/3X_i + 2/9X_{i+1} + 1/9X_{i+2}$$
.

Simultaneously, a second arithmetic running average was performed on the resulting data to create 10-sec averages spaced at 2-sec intervals. Furthermore, the data went through a low-pass digital filter having a -3 dB band edge at 0.01 Hz that drops to -60 dB at 0.02 Hz.

The smoothed azimuth, elevation, and slant range were then transposed to X, Y, and Z Cartesian and geodetic coordinates. Using data time spacings of 30 sec, north, east, vertical, horizontal balloon speeds, and horizontal wind shears were calculated.

Sample results of the balloon position, velocity, and horizontal wind shear calculations are presented in Figure 7. The data are interpolated for even spacings of time every 2.0 second.

#### 5. PROGRAM DESCRIPTION

The general research objective of this program is to compare the measurements of atmospheric turbulence of several different experimental designs. The primary instruments consisted of the MIT Lincoln Laboratory 440 MHz<sup>12</sup> turbulence scatter radar and an Air Force Weapons Laboratory Stellar Scintillometer. In addition to the primary instrumentation, radiosonde, thermosonde, and aircraft instrumentation were used to provide a broader comparison base. AFGL operated the sondes and scintillometer, while personnel from the Northeast Radio Observatory Corporation (NEROC) operated the radar. Aircraft measurements were provided by Airborne Research Associates, Bedford, Mass., under contract to AFGL.

From 10 Fcb 1981 until 8 Aug 1981, over 30 radiosondes were flown. Twenty-nine of these are listed in Table 1. The preliminary qualification flights, up until 21 May 1981, were launched from AFGL. The remainder of the experiments (22) were launched near the NEROC Haystack Observatory at Millstone Hill, Westford, Mass., during the month of July.

Scheduling conflicts, time of day, and equipment availability dictated, to some extent, the particular experiment on a given day. The scintillometer could be operated only on cloudless nights. The aircraft required co-ordination with the FAA, and it was further constrained by bad weather and other scheduling difficulties. The radar was shared by other groups at Millstone, and it was available for these measurements only on those dates pre-arranged weeks in advance. The radiosonde

<sup>\*</sup>As of this printing, a detailed description of the positional data was being prepared for publication as an AFGL technical memorandum. The title is: Analysis of Balloon Trajectory for the Calculation of Wind Velocities and Shears, by Sullivan, B., et. al.

<sup>12.</sup> Watkins, B.J. (1981) Millstone Hill Doppler Radar Observations of Winds and Turbulence, Middle Atmospheric Program, Handbook for MAP, Extended abstracts from Int. Sym. on Middle Atm. Dyn. 2:30-36.

Ochs, G.R., Lawrence, R.S., and Wang, T. (1976) Stellar scintillation measurement of the vertical profile of refractive—index turbulence in the atmosphere, Proc. Soc. of Photo-optical Inst. Eng. 75:48-54.

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2 19	35.0			<b>S6.08</b>	58.34	14.73		42.21	70.91	49.18	26 94	5	90.00	-2.52			40.00
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						7.3		42.23	70.91	49.41			18.69	-3.39	4.84	19.19	16610
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	2			56.37		14.73		42.21	10.91	49.49			18.77	-3.85	4.69	19.16	02360
2 19	53.0			56.40		14.73		42.21	16.07	49.52			18.70	60.7	4.62	10.1	02508
2	55.0			56.44		14.73		45.21	16.02	49.58			18.62	4.35	96	6.	02629
2	57.0			56.48	58.76	14.73	116.25	42.21	26.02	49.60	27.01	103.96	18.55	19.7		19.12	02779
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4 ¢	, 0			56.66		4.72	118.21	47.21	20.90	49.78			18.31	-5.89	= :	23	.02724
16	0			56.70		14.72	118.20	42.21	70.90	49.82			10.29	-6.12	4.05	53	.02646
100	1			56.74		14.72	11B.20	47.21	70.90	49.85			19.28	-6.34	3.99	19.33	02547
7	13.0			56.78		14.72	118.19	42.24	70.90	49.68	_		18.28	6.55	3.93	19.42	02431
200	15.0			56.82		14.71	118.19	42.21	70.90	49.93	~ (		9.59	-6.74		19.50	02298
2	17.0			56.85	59.15	7.	116.18	42.21	70.50		2 4		2.0		7 (0		01000
e N	100		2	900			1.0.1	47.7	20.90	20.05	9		18.36	-7.21	3,76	19.73	01838
,,	5.5		u t	3.0		14.70	118.17	2.2	70.90	50.07	-27.18		18.38	-7.34	3.74	19.79	01674
, 5 , 6	25.0		-	57.01	59.31	14.70	118.15	42.21	10.90	20.1			18.40	-7.45	3.72	19.86	01512
2	27.0		-	57.05	59.35	14.70	118.16	42.21	70.90	50.13			18.42	7.35			79610
ล	29.0	8429.0	15.35	57.09	99,39	14.69	118.15	42.21	20.07	20.00	-27.24	112.51	10.43	-7.71	2.2		01138
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2	37.0		15.38	57.25	59.56		118.14	42.21	70.90	50.33			18.32	-7.87	3.81	į	01163
202	39.0		Ē.	57.19	59.60	14.68	118,13	42.2	70.90	50.37	-27.30		22.9	7.00	, c	2	7 7 7 6 7
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i N	9		15.40	57.37	9.0	79.0	10.1	40.0	20.00	100	27.75		200	-8.03	90.4	3	0,848
2 4			10.4	77.4	10.78	44.66	118.12	42.23	70,90	50.51	-27.37	4.42	17.78	-8.07	4.15	6	01764
4 6 4 6	9		15.4	4.75	59.80	14.66	118.12	62.21	70.90	50.55	27.38	14.73	17.63	-8.13	4.23	Ŧ	01866
; ; , ,	215		15.44	57.53	59.84	14.66	118.11	62.21	70.90	50.59	27.40 1	15.07	17.46	-8.17	4.32	19.27	01950
ä	53.0		15.44	57.57	59.88	14.66	118.11	42.21	70.80	50.62	27.41	15.45	17.28	9.55	4.4		02015
~ ~	55.0	6455.0	15.48	57.60	59.85	14.66	118.11	42.21	70.89	50.65	27.43	15.87	17.00	-8:20		2	02000

Figure 7. Sample Output of Reduced Tracker Data. Edited and filtered

Table 1. Optical  $C_{N}^{2}$  (Turbulence) Measurement Program

REHARKS	resistive commutator Press unknown	Free fell at    launch. Reflowm  APR-29-81    No station wax	No reel down.	Auto-track 17:33:40 No Met Data.		Auto-track 118:41:21		fato-track 19:18:40	Auto-track  22:37:32	Winds not processed.	Auto-track  OI:42:10. Wind  not_processed.	Auto track  01:38:09. Flown  after T'Storm
¥ E &	<b>6</b> .	8.	••	 	•·	<b>*</b> -	33.9	36.5	35.5	<b>.</b>	33.6	
SITE	ઇ	ਰ	ಕ	ਰ	ਰ	ಕ	ಶ	НАХ	ная	НАХ	HAY	нүх
TAPE OFF (ZULU)	21:59:45		20:25:00	19:32:00	19:34:25	19:50:00	19:29:05	21:01:30	00:35:00	03:55:08	<b>*</b>	03:32:23
BALLOON BURST (ZULU)	•	•-	•	19:22:30	•	<b>*</b>	19:12:50	20:57:50	00:27:50	<b>e</b> r	03:15:30	<b>9</b>
AIR-	1		- <del></del>		•			,	- <b>-</b>	1	,	1
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LAUNCH TIME (2ULU)	20:14:45	bessed	18:49:55	17:30:50	18:00:00 approx.	18:40:36	17:29:50	19:15:35	22:37:32	02:09:36	01:30:28	01:37:32
LAUNCH DATE (2ULU)	Feb-10-81   20:1-	Mar-19-81 not processed	Mar-23-81	Apr-29-81	May-15-81	May-19-81	May-21-81	Jun-09-81	Jun-30-81		Jul-09-8:	Jul-10-81
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Table 1. Optical  $C_N^2$  (Turbulence) Measurement Program (Continued)

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SITE	Key	A S	Hay	le y	Hay	Res	re e	L C	N.	j.	Eay	ie.
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TSERIO)	22:15:00	<b>P</b> 1	<b>.</b> .	•.	63:16:20	<b>#</b> **	%:¢7:52	•.	ě	22:43:10	22:23:40	23:15:00
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Sales Sa Sales Sa Sa Sa Sa Sa Sa Sa Sa Sa Sa Sa Sa Sa	3e1-11-	Ce2-12-81	141-15-81	1.82-16-81	19-11-10	19-62-(96	Jul - 23 - 81	not processed	.Tu: -24-81	Je1-25-23	Jul-28-31	Jul-29-91
SACTO-	l sacara	CKOCAS	(20002)	CX0C30	CXONE	ex0c36	1130KD	exoc34	6touxb	CXCO38	oxoe35	CXOC+3
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Table 1. Optical  $C_N^2$  (Turbulence) Measurement Program (Continued)

REMARKS	Auto-track  01:13:03 	Auto-track  20:16:13	Auto-track 01:30:30	Auto-track (03:31:30	Auto-track 105:49:50							
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and thermosonde had no constraints other than availability of tracking personnel. As it turned out, the scintillometer and radar operated together only on one evening, 31 July 1981. Good quality experiments using three techniques, radar, thermosonde, and aircraft were accomplished twice. Good quality radar and radiosonde measurements were completed on fifteen occasions. Good quality radiosonde and thermosonde experiments were operated on eighteen occasions. Radar, radiosonde, and thermosonde operated successfully on eleven occasions.

#### 6. RESULTS

Results of typical experimental runs are presented in the following plots. Figures 8 and 9 show temperature and relative humidity profiles obtained 31 July. A small temperature inversion is found at 3 km that roughly corresponds with a high negative gradient in relative humidity. A more pronounced temperature inversion is found at 12 km, defining the tropopause.

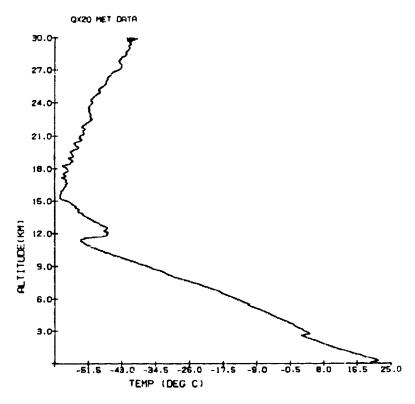


Figure 8. Typical Temperature Profile Plot. Processed result

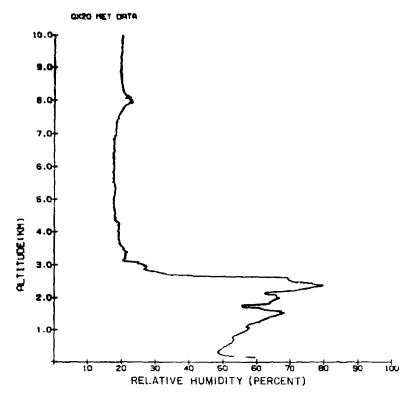


Figure 9. Typical Relative Humidity Profile Plot. Processed result

Figures 10 and 11 show the east and north balloon velocity component profiles. The maximum horizontal wind occurs at 10.7 km at 35 m/sec. The detailed wind structure is clearly evident.

Figure 12 shows the horizontal vector wind shear,  $S_H$ , profile to 30 km.  $S_H$  is defined as the resultant of the east and north horizontal component shears, or  $S_H^2 = S_N^2 + S_E^2$ . Figure 13 is an expanded view of Figure 12 in the altitude range from 20 km to 25 km and shows the mean shear at about 0.02 sec<sup>-1</sup>. This plot shows structuring of the wind shear down to the spatial filter wavelength of about 120 m. The power spectral density of the winds are plotted in Figure 14. The slope is about -2.5, which compares well with other measurements. <sup>14</sup>

<sup>14.</sup> Endlich, R.M., and Singleton, R.C. (1969) Spectral analysis of detailed vertical wind speeds profiles, 3. Atmos. Sci. 26:1030-1041.

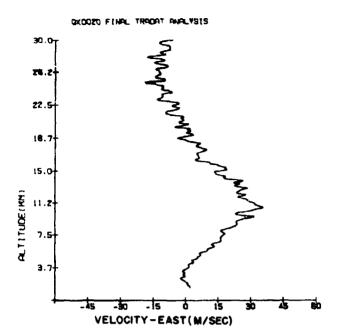


Figure 10. Typical Balloon Velocity Analysis - East Profile Plot. Edited and filtered

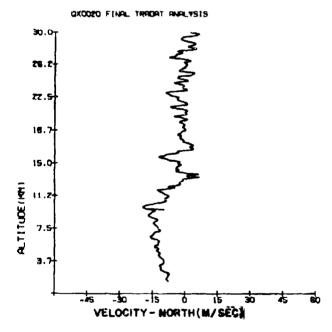


Figure 11. Typical Balloon Velocity Analysis - North Profile Plot. Edited and filtered

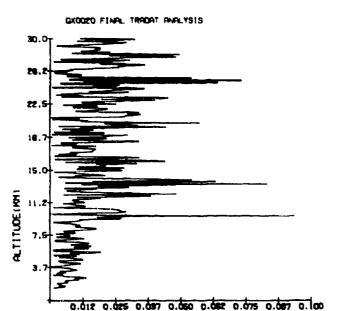


Figure 12. Typical Horizontal Vector Shear Analysis. Profile plot. Shear is calculated over a 30-sec data spacing

SH. VERTIGAL SHEAR OF HORIZONTAL WIND

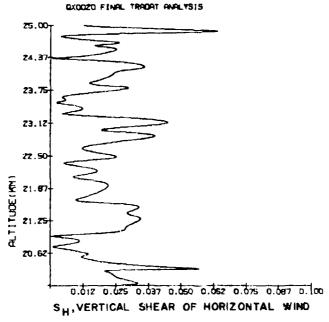


Figure 13. Expanded View of Horizontal Vector Shear. The shear altitude resolution is about 120  $\rm m$ 

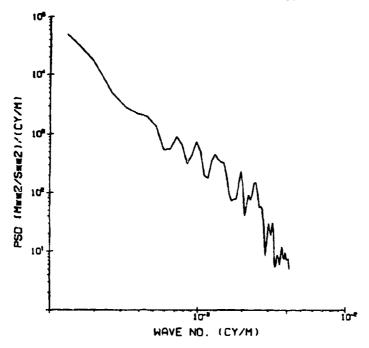


Figure 14. Power Spectral Density Analysis of Horizontal Vector Shear. The slope is about -2.5

Figure 15 shows "RAW" thermosonde  $C_N^2$  values as a function of altitude. The mean  $C_N^2$  tends to decrease logarithmically with altitude. Figure 16 is an expanded view of Figure 15 in the altitude range from 10 km to 15 km. A large-scale maxmum shows up at 11.5 km while the fluctuations in  $C_N^2$  appear to be due to the small sampling interval.  $C_N^2$  smoothed to 120 m is plotted in Figure 17 for comparison. Figure 18 plots the cumulative frequency distribution of  $C_T^2$ . The data follows a straight line, except at the endpoints, which confirms the log normal distribution of  $C_N^2$ .

The purpose of the optical turbulence program was to compare various techniques of observing  $C_N^2$ . Sonde measurements were important in the low altitude comparison between radar, scintillometer, and thermosonde. The radar-received power, scattered by refractive index fluctuations, can be related to a  $C_N^2$ . This  $C_N^2$  is caused by turbulent fluctuations in both temperature and water vapor concentrations. As the comparisons are based on optical wavelength  $C_N^2$ , the contribution of water vapor must be removed from the radar  $C_N^2$ .

The fluctuations of the refractive index across a layer is given 1, 15 as:

$$M = -77.6 \times 10^{-6} \frac{P\omega_{B}^{2}}{Tg} \left[ 1 + 15,500 \frac{q}{T} - \frac{15,500}{2} \frac{g}{T} \frac{q'}{\omega_{B}^{2}} \right]$$
(8)

where

P \* pressure (mb)

T = temperature (Kelvin)

 $g = gravity (m \cdot s^{-2})$ 

q = specific humidity (gm/gm)

 $ω_B^2$  = squared Brunt-Vaisala frequency  $(s^{-2}) = (g/\theta) \theta^1$  q' = vertical gradient of specific humidity  $(m^{-1})$ 

 $\theta'$  = vertical gradient of potential temperature (Kelvin/m)

The radar  $C_N^2$  can be corrected to dry conditions,  $C_N^2$  (dry) by evaluating the bracketed terms in Eq. (8) on the basis of the sonde measurements of P, T, and q.

$$C_N^2(dry) = C_N^2(radar)$$
 
$$\frac{1}{\left[1 + 15,000 \frac{q}{T} - \frac{15,500}{2} \frac{g}{T} \frac{q'}{\omega_B^2}\right]^2}$$

The comparison between the  $C_N^2$  (dry) derived from radar measurements and the optical scintillometer is shown in Figure 19. The optical scintillometer 13 obtains data over very large weighting functions. The scintillometer 1/e half-width varies from 1.4 km at an altitude of 2.2 to 4.9 km at an altitude of 14 km. The weighting functions are shown in Figure 20. The comparison between radar and scintillometer shown in Figure 19 is obtained by passing the  $C_N^2$  (dry) through the six weighting functions.

A comparison of thermosonde data and the scintillometer is shown in Figure 21. Here the thermosonde data shown in Figure 15 is passed through the scintillometer weighting functions. This agreement is good. The large smoothing of the weighting functions hides whatever variations may exist due to the space and time differences in the respective measurements. The scintillometer viewed the sky vertically while the thermosonde followed a slant path.

Thermosonde and radar comparison can be made over very nearly the same volume and space by the fact that the radar can be pointed in the direction of the sonde. The radar  $C_N^2$  (dry) is obtained over one-minute periods and averaged over

<sup>15.</sup> VanZandt, T.E., Gage, K.S., and Warnock, J.M. (1981) An Improved Model for the Calculation of Profiles of CN and a in the Free Atmosphere from Background Profiles of Wind, Temperature, and Humidity, 20th conf. on Radar Meteorology, (30 Nov-3 Dec 1981).

five minutes. A composite of the radar results is made to match the sonde altitude and times. The comparison of radar and thermosonde  ${\rm C_N^2}$  values is presented in Figure 22. The thermosonde data has been averaged over 0.50-km intervals.

The comparisons shown indicate the thermosonde radar and scintillometer are in quite good agreement. The data shown represents the results from just one day's measurements. Detailed comparisons involving all the data sets will be analyzed and presented in separate scientific reports.

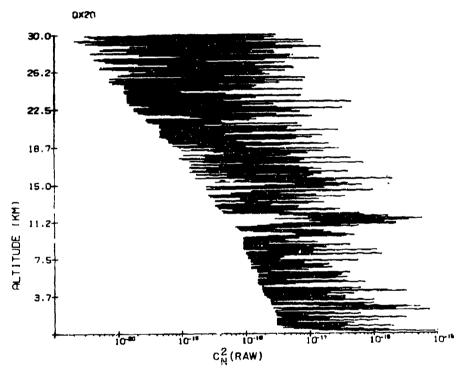


Figure 15. Raw Thermosonde  $C_N^2$  Analysis – Profile Plot. Low and high gain measurements have been combined into a single best measurement. The thermosonde measures  $C_N^2$  from ground level to 30 km.  $C_N^2$  is calculated from  $C_N^2$  and the radiosonde measurements of pressure and temperature

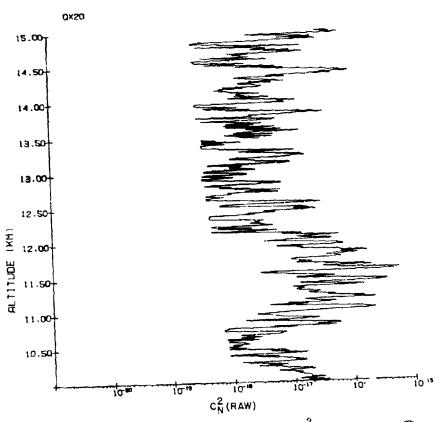


Figure 16. Expanded View of Raw Thermosonde  $C_N^2$  Profile Plot. The altitude resolution of  $C_N^2$  is about 10 m. Each data point is a result of the rms value of  $C_T$  taken over 1 sec

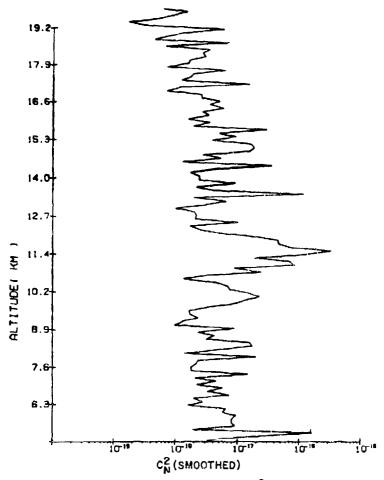


Figure 17. Smoothed Thermosonde  $C_N^2$  Profile Plot.  $C_N^2$  is smoothed over 120 m

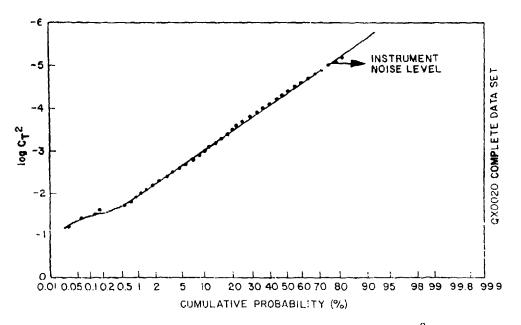


Figure 18. Cumulative Probability Distribution Curve of LOG  $\rm C_T^2$ . Thermosonde  $\rm C_R^2$  shows a log normal distribution. For this data set the 50 percent probability  $\rm C_T^2$  is 4.5  $\times$  10<sup>-5</sup> °C<sup>2</sup>

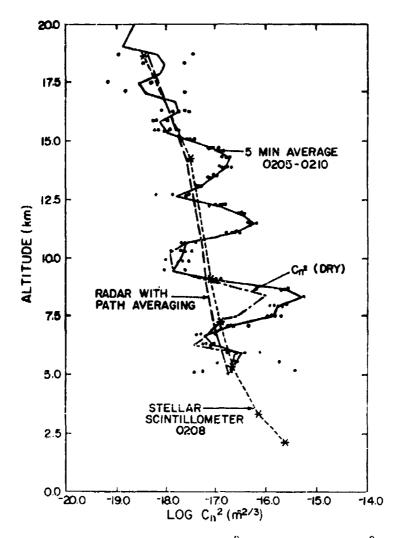


Figure 19. Comparison of Radar  $C_N^2$  and Scintillometer  $C_N^2$  Profiles. The path averaged radar and scintillometer profiles show good agreement. The points depict radar  $C_N^2$  measurements. The solid line through the radar points represent 5-min radar averages. The seven scintillometer measurements are shown as \* with straight lines drawn between them. The dashed curve represents the radar averaged  $C_N^2$  corrected for moisture and passed through the scintillometer weighting functions of Figure 19

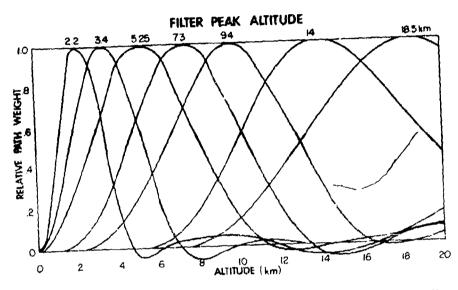


Figure 20. Scintillometer Weighting Functions. The optical scintillometer obtains data over these large weighting functions

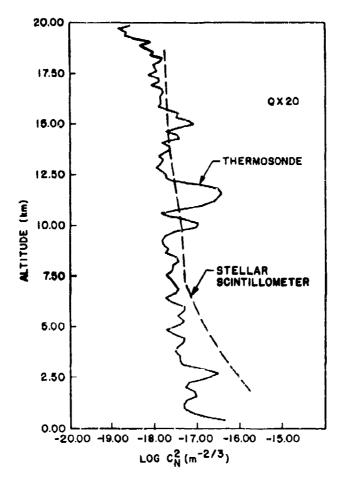


Figure 21. Comparison of Thermosonde  $C_N^2$  and Scintillometer  $C_N^2$  and Scintillometer  $C_N^2$  Profiles. The Thermosonde "raw"  $C_N^2$  data was passed through the scintillometer weighting functions of Figure 19. Although the scintillometer viewed the sky vertically while the thermosonde followed a slant path, the agreement is good

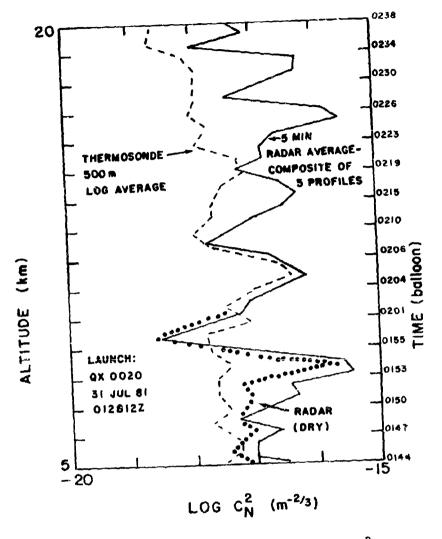


Figure 22. Comparison of Thermosonde  $C_N^2$  and Radar  $C_N^2$  Profiles. The Thermosonde data is averaged over 0.50 km. The Radar data is a time and space composite which attempts to synchronize the time/space coordinates of the Radar and Thermosonde.

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